DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 234 464 CS 504 406

TITLE Developing Oral Communication Skills.
INSTITUTION Washington Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 44p.; Prepared by the Oral and Written Communications Task Force.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Annotated Bibliographies; *Communication Skills; Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; Integrated Activities; Language Arts; Language Usage; *Listening Skills; *Reading Skills; *Skill Development; *Speech Communication; *Speech Skills; Writing Skills

ABSTRACT

Intended for use by both elementary and secondary school teachers, the two papers in this report stress the importance of developing students' oral and written communication skills. The first paper, "Relationship of Oral Communication to Reading," by Phil Backlund and John Johnson, argues that ability in oral communication is a prerequisite to the development of reading skill. To support this argument, it examines the historical role of speech communication in the classroom, reviews research discussing the importance of oral communication to reading, and offers suggestions for instruction and research. The second paper, "Developing Oral Communication Skills, K-12," by Jody Nyquist and Barbara Clinton, contains (1) a description of the oral communication process, (2) a listing of oral communication skills that can be expected of students within a specified grade range if the students have been provided direct instruction, and (3) a list of resources that describe classroom activities for teaching oral communication. The report also contains an extensive annotated bibliography. (FL)

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Oral and Written Communications

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Developing Oral Communication Skills

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Under the leadership of Monica Schmidt, Assistant Superintendent, the Oral and Written Communication Task Force held its first meeting in September, 1981. The Task Force wishes to thank members of the original Task Force and the state-wide Task Force Reaction Panel for their valuable contributions, assistance and encouragement.

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FOREWORD

A 1980 statewide study conducted by the Division of Instructional Programs and Services of the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction identified three critical areas of program emphasis need: "Computer Technology," "Student Discipline and Motivation," and "Oral and Written Communications."

Dr. Monica Schmidt, then Assistant Superintendent of the division, formed a task force for each of the identified areas. Hence, the Oral and Written Communications Task Force emerged chaired by Gloria Prevost, Supervisor of Basic Skills, and William Radcliffe, Jr., Director of Basic Education. Under their leadership, considerable progress was made during the 1981-82 school year including the purchase of publications which are directly related to this publication and which served as the foundation for the publications printed by this office. (See listing of publications on inside of the back cover.)

Mrs. Mona Bailey became the Assistant Superintendent of the division on July 1, 1982. One of her first priorities was to notify her staff on her commitment to the continuing Task Force activities of the division. Further, she appointed Drs. Gary Bloomfield and Les Francis as Co-chairs and Jean Wieman as Section Director to the Oral and Written Communications Task Force to complete the efforts of Gloria Prevost and William Radcliffe, Jr. who left the agency on June 30, 1982.

The fact that oral and written communications remain vital skills in our society cannot be disputed. Even in a highly technological society which is rapidly evolving toward the electronic modes of transmitting communications, the quality of input and output still lies with the oral and written skills of the individual. Communication skills are increasingly critical to the social and economic success of each individual in this age of rapid communications.

A cadre of 10 persons from each Educational Service District has been trained to assist school districts with their communication skills instructional programs. These trained professionals and training materials are available through your ESD Curriculum Director. They are the vital link between the oral and writing skills of the '70s to the newer and more comprehensive programs in the '80s.

RELATIONSHIP OF ORAL COMMUNICATION TO READING

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As humans, we have the use of four primary communication modes - listening, speaking (including nonverbal aspects), reading and writing. Of these four, we spend approximately seventy-five percent of our communication time using the first two. Yet instructionally, we spend ninety percent or better of our communication instructional time on the second two - reading and writing. But we also have difficulties teaching all children to read and write. Illiteracy is still with us. Perhaps it is time we re-examined our educational strategy in light of the statistics on communication use. Perhaps we have been asking the wrong question. Perhaps we have spent too much time and energy developing beginning reading programs rather than investigating the possibility of prerequisite abilities necessary to learning to read. Analogically speaking, have we been bakers who have regularly produced foul tasting cookies, and rather than examining the ingredients to determine the cause, have we used our time to devise new and better mixers and ovens? In this case, the most important educational variable is not the teaching method. It is something the student must be able to do before reading can begin.

The purpose of this article is to explore one of those possible prerequisites--oral communication. We will suggest that ability in oral communication is a necessary prerequisite to the development of reading skill. In supporting this point, we would like to look at three areas: 1) a brief definition of oral communication, 2) a brief description of research on the relationship between speech communication and reading, and 3) a discussion of instructional goals related to speech communication and reading.

Background on Oral Communication

Speech is one of the oldest academic disciplines in the western world and has formed a cornerstone of education for centuries. Yet historically, the elementary schools of America have not included speech or oral communication as a primary subject. Its earliest function was found in the teaching of oral reading with the emphasis being placed on audibility, articulation, and pronunciation. The early 1900's brought an end to oral reading, and speech education then fell under the auspices of English. In high school curriculum, debate and forensics emerged, but there is little evidence that speech was underlined as important for the elementary child. As recently as 1967, curriculum design books have viewed speech as a secondary objective of English.

However, this view is changing. Amendments to the 1978 Elementary and Secondary School Act call for each state to develop, implement, and evaluate a program in basic skills for its elementary and secondary students. These basic skills (in communication) are defined as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This legislation, together with the competency movement of recent years, is providing the impetus for a renewed interest in oral communication skills. Unfortunately, reasearch and curriuclum development in oral communication has lagged significantly behind reading and writing. Too little is known about the relationship between oral communication skills and written communication skills, but we would like to present some of our findings on the subject.

Research

During the last forty years various reading researchers have considered the role of oral communication in reading. For example, John B. Carroll states:

> "We can define reading ultimately as the activity of reconstructing (overtly and covertly) a reasonable spoken message from a printed text and making meaning responses to the reconstructed message that would parallel those that would be made to a spoken message (1964,62)."

Oral language is addressed by Gibson (1969) who views the first step in learning to read as being the acquisition of spoken language. Stecht's research regarding auding (auding refers specifically to comprehending and

responding appropriately to patterns of speech) and reading led him to formulate, "...that because auding and reading share a common language and cognitive base, effective training in comprehending by auding will transfer to comprehending by reading, as that skill develops (1974, 107)." Hildreath (1964), using her own research and that of others concluded:

1. The words used by the child in oral language are normally those which are easier to read.
2. The child's language facility is related to reading success.
3. Poor readers are often those children who are deficient in oral language.
4. Reading defects are related to speech difficulties.

In a critical essay regarding present reading programs, Dennison (1974) discusses four tenets of child development which are commonly overlooked in program design. Oral communication is one of the tenets. In discussing oral communication, Dennison details four major considerations:

1. The child cannot repeat nor fully understand what he cannot speak.
2. The child cannot orally read or fully understand what he cannot speak.
3. The child's oral language level must exceed the level of reading instruction.
4. Written materials must approach the oral language level to encourage comprehension.

One of the most significant statements regarding the role of oral communication was jointly drafted by four professional education organizations (National Council of Teachers of English, International Reading Association, Association for Childhood Education International, and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development). In the conclusion of the paper Children and Oral Language, the authors state:

1. Oral language is the basis for success in reading.
2. Pupils with an inadequate facility in oral language are very likely to suffer learning difficulty, especially in the area of reading and writing (Mackintosh, 1964).

We have suggested a positive sequential relationship between speech communication proficiency and reading ability. To assume that all scholars agree with this general finding would be rather naive. Descriptive research findings of several studies do not always indicate high correlations between measures of oral language and reading ability at lower

elementary grades. However, a statistically significant relationship has been found by researchers who have examined subjects and data for at least one year (and usually from 2 to 7 years) and have used studies above the second grade. Thus, given sufficient time and maturity of the students, there does appear to be a direct, positive correlation between speech communication and reading ability.

Goals for Instruction and Research

We can look at theory, we can look at research, but ultimately we must look at the students. Can they read? Can they talk clearly and competently? Can we increase a student's reading ability by insuring he or she has a basic oral competency? Unfortunately, research on this question is disappointingly limited, however, the evidence we do have calls for the centrality of oral communication in the reading process. The vast majority of empirical research data supports this position. We also have evidence to suggest that educational programs in speech communication do have a positive effect on reading development.

Based on these conclusions and on the basic skills legislation, we can offer four conclusions: First, further research is needed on the impact of instructional programs for oral communication at both the elementary and secondary levels. Second, greater efforts need to be made to coordinate the teaching of oral communication and written communication. Third, each person spends approximately seventy-five percent of communication activities in speaking and listening and only twenty-five percent on reading and writing, yet our instructional programs do not reflect these percentages. Perhaps we need to increase the instructional time devoted to oral communication. Fourth, communication is basic to human existence. We should do everything we can to insure that each student has competency in all the modes of communication.

The ultimate usefulness of this essay does not rest solely in data or theory itself, but in the application of that data to educational program development. As Edith Green so eloquently said, "Knowledge without action is futile, but action without knowledge is fatal (1975)."

ENDNOTES

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DEVELOPING ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS
K-12

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Preparing curricular materials to assist teachers to develop the oral communication skills of K-12 students of the state of Washington presents a difficult problem. The materials need to be immediately applicable to assist classroom teachers to work with their students on Monday morning. At the same time, the materials need to provide sufficient theoretical background to answer the question of "why" they should be taught at all. This information must be synthesized into an easily read document which can be delivered to the often tired and always overloaded teachers of the state who are already attempting to teach crowded curricula. To add further to the difficulty, few of our teachers have been formally trained in teaching oral communication. 1

Attempting to achieve these three goals of immediate application, theoretical background, and readable materials, we have developed a packet for the classroom teachers which contains the following three parts:

1) A brief description of the oral communication process;
2) A listing of oral communication skills which can be expected of students within a specified grade range if the students have been provided direct instruction;
3) Resources which provide classroom activities for teaching oral communication.

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[1]In the Nyquist state survey of 1977, even the speech communication teachers of the state indicated that they were primarily English teachers with very limited training in oral communication. See Jody Nyquist, "The Status of Speech Communication in Washington Secondary Schools," The Communicator, 12 (Spring 1982), p. 81-95.

Since 1978, oral communication has been considered, by[2] law, a basic skill which shall be taught to all students. Yet we have found few programs in the state[3] which provide students with sequential, systematic, and developmental instruction designed to enable students to become competent oral communicators. We hope this document will contribute to that end.

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[2]Basic Skills legislation described in Title II of the 1978 Elementary and Secondary Education Act identifies basic skills as reading, mathematics, and effective communication, both written and oral. The full text of the Title II legislation appears in the Congressional Record--House, October 10, 1978.

[3]At this time, the authors are aware of efforts in the Issaquah and Ellensburg School Districts to develop programs and in the K-8 program at the Villa Academy in Seattle. Others will no doubt appear in the next few months. Please send the location of any oral communication programs to S.P.I.

THE ORAL COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Oral communication is our first used, most often used, and most significantly used means for establishing contact with others. Our earliest concepts of self, family, society, and culture develop from oral communication interaction. Competence in oral communication is demanded on a daily basis from those with whom we live, play, and work. Every listing of attributes required of current high school graduates has communication skills (both oral and written) at the top.

Colleges, universities, and the business world continue to call for a high competence level of oral communication skills. Recently, the Division of Instructional Programs and Services in the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Washington State conducted a state-wide survey to identify major areas of concern for intensive task force study. Oral and written communication has been the object of a year-long study which has resulted in this packet plus other materials.

Oral communication permeates every facet of our lives: self-concept, family relationships, jobs, community involvement. While society has always recognized this fact, we believe that oral communication competence has been looked upon as a skill which most people feel simply develops naturally. After all, children learn to speak language before entering school and are not "taught" to speak in that environment. Instead, schools tend to provide numerous opportunities to practice oral communication skills as students and teachers interact continuously throughout the school day. In most cases, however, little direct instruction is provided in a systematic, developmental way to enable students to acquire oral communication skills.

Oral communication competence can be described, as Connolly and Bruner [4] have suggested, as possessing four attributes: (1) sufficient oral communication strategies within a person's repertoire; (2) the ability to select appropriate strategies from that repertoire; (3) skills for implementing the chosen strategy; and finally, (4) accurate assessment of the effectiveness of the particular strategy.

These four features of communication competence need to be thoroughly understood by the classroom teacher. Allen and Brown further describe them as:

1) Repertoire of communication acts: the ability to perform the wide range of communication acts required by different conversations, people, settings, and tasks.
2) Selection: the ability to make critical choices from the repertoire according to the people involved in the communication, the setting, the topic, and the purpose.
3) Implementation: the ability to perform the desired task using the suitable behavior.
4) Evaluation: the ability to judge personal performance objectively in terms of its appropriateness, effectiveness, and satisfaction. [5]

Not only must students possess a broad repertoire of effective communication skills, be able to select appropriately from that repertoire, implement the communication act selected, and evaluate the effectiveness of the chosen communication act, they must do so on the basis of the purpose of their communication act. What are they trying to achieve in the particular instance? What do they want to have happen as a result of the interaction? While there are several ways of approaching the answer to these questions, we have chosen the Functional Approach as the best way of teaching oral communication skills and developing curricula at K-12 levels.

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[4] Kevin J. Connolly and Jerome S. Bruner, The Growth of Competence (New York: Academic Press, 1974), p. 3-7.

[5] R.R. Allen and Kenneth L. Brown eds. Developing Communication Competence in Children (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1976).

The functional approach means simply looking at communication in terms of the way communication functions operate within real interchanges. All communication requires both sending and receiving, speaking and listening. This is an important perspective to bear in mind when viewing communication from this approach. People both initiate and respond according to five basic communication functions:6

1) The Controlling Function focuses on directives; communication acts in which the speaker's dominant function is to control behavior or influence opinion.
2) The Shared-Feelings Function focuses on the expression of affection, hostility, pride in accomplishments; communication acts which are expressive and responsive to feelings and attitudes.
3) The Informing Function focuses on making and responding to statements, asking and answering questions; communication acts in which the participant's function is to offer or seek information.
4) The Ritualizing Function focuses on behaviors such as greeting, teasing, gossiping; communication acts which serve to maintain social relationships and facilitate social interaction.
5) The Imagining Function focuses on a development from playful pretending to perception of social rules and language appropriate to them; communication acts which include many creative behaviors such as role playing, dramatizing, story telling.

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[6]A number of theorists have sorted communication acts into these five broad categories. See, for example: John R. Searle, Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1969) and Gordon Wells, Coding Manual for the Description of Child Speech (Bristol, England: University of Bristol School of Education, 1973). These broad categories were then developed into the functional approach. See R.R. Allen and Kenneth L. Brown, eds. Developing Communication Competence in Children (Skokie, Ill: National Textbook Co., 1976) and Barbara Wood, ed. Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Pre-K--Grade 6 (Urbana, Ill: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1977), Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Grades 7-12 (Urbana, Ill: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1977).

These functions are not necessarily mutually exclusive. In many interactions both parties are attempting more than one function simultaneously. For instance, a person may be expressing feelings about a value and attempting to control the other's responses to achieve an agreement. In any case, most communication acts can be analyzed according to the primary function the communication is performing.

Assuming that the classroom teacher is attempting to enable students to acquire communication skills (in terms of repertoire, selection criteria, implementation, and evaluation) across all five functions (controlling, sharing feelings, informing, ritualizing, and imagining), the next step is to determine which oral communication skill should be taught at what levels and to identify those things which students should master to be considered "competent."

ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

The following list of basic oral communication skill is organized according to function and identified as to which age (K-3, 4-6, 7-8, 9-12) such skills should have been acquired. Not all students will reach these levels at the designated age range, since the skills range from minimum to much higher than minimum. The listing should provide classroom teachers with a possible checklist for their own students and a framework for building curricula. In each instance, we have provided age-appropriate examples of each skill. In some cases, there exists a clear progression of complex communication acts. (For example, in the controlling function: the student is able to distinguish fact from opinion (e.g., 4-6: the student can make statements of fact and statements of opinion concerning school life; 7-8: the student can listen to a TV commercial and differentiate between fact and opinion; 9-12: the student can tell another that the information under dispute is simply the other's opinion about a politician, for example, rather than the "truth" about the person.))

In others, the communication act may be very similar at all grade ranges, but the subject matter must be changed to accommodate the more sophisticated older child's uses of communication. (For example, in the controlling function: the student is able to recognize when he or she is being influenced/persuaded by peers and others (e.g., 7-8: the student realizes that wearing Lacoste shirts is a result of peer expectation; 9-12: the student realizes when he/she is being persuaded to join Senior Skip Day.)) All skills include both verbal <u>and</u> nonverbal communication, speaking <u>and</u> listening. Those skills which are particularly dependent upon or emphasize listening are marked with an L.

ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS[7]

A. Controlling

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12

The student is able to:

	x	x	x	1. Distinguish fact from opinion (e.g., 4-6: the student can make statements of fact and statements of opinion concerning school life; 7-8: the student can listen to a TV commercial and differentiate between fact and opinion; 9-12: the student can tell another that the information under dispute is simply the other's opinion about a politician rather than the "truth" about the person.)
		x	x	2. Assess the audience and select arguments most effective for that particular audience (e.g., 7-8: the student can role play an argument with a "parent" about 3 relevant social issues and then role play an argument with a "peer" about the same issue; 9-12: the student can effectively speak on why the community club should sponsor the Junior Achievement Club.)
	x	x	x	3. Assume control in peer-related activities (e.g., 4-6: the student can take charge in a game, setting the rules and boundaries; 7-8: the student can take charge of a group activity in a classroom setting; 9-12: the student can take charge of determining where to meet after the football game.)
	x	x	x	4. Compete with peers; exhibit interpersonal competition (e.g., 4-6: the student can participate in a dispute with a peer about who is the better soccer player; 7-8: the student can participate in a dispute with a peer about who is the better babysitter; 9-12: the student can participate in a dispute about who is the better automobile driver.)
	x	x	x	5. Influence others through effective use of argument and persuasion (e.g., 4-6: the student can convince his or her parents to buy a particular product; 7-8: the student can convince his or her parents that a particular family rule is too "babyish" and should be suspended; 9-12: the student can convince his or her parents to give permission to join a weekend house party after the senior prom.)

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[7] We are indebted to Barbara Wood for the original competencies list which we have expanded and modified.

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
	x	x	x

6. (a) State an opinion and defend it (e.g., 4-6: the student can choose a favorite toy and defend its merits; 7-8: the student can select an important school rule and defend why it should be enforced.)
(b) Defend a point of view when under attack from others (e.g., 9-12: the student can explain why AC-DC is the better band.)

		x	x

7. L Recognize when he or she is being influenced/persuaded by peers and others (e.g., 7-8: the student realizes that wearing Lacoste shirts is a result of peer expectation; 9-12: the student realizes when he/she is being persuaded to join Senior Skip Day.)

	x	x	x

8. Express dissatisfaction with a purchased product (e.g., 4-6: the student can return a game with missing pieces and explain the problem to the clerk; 7-8: the student can return a purchased piece of clothing which doesn't fit; 9-12: the student can explain to a hairdresser why she is dissatisfied with a haircut and what changes need to me made.)

	x	x	x

9. L Describe the viewpoint of a family member or peer in a disagreement (e.g., 4-6: the student can give the parents' viewpoint in an argument over watching a particular TV show; 7-8: the student can give the parents' viewpoint in an argument over how to use spending money; 9-12: the student can give the parents' viewpoint in an argument over curfew time.)

			x

10. L Assess kinds of appeals in persuasive messages (e.g., 9-12: the student can identify emotional appeals such as "you don't like me if you won't . . .")

			x

11. L Detect fallacies in arguments (e.g., 9-12: the student can recognize, for example, distortions in statistics.)

			x

12. L Negotiate differing points of view to effect a compromise (e.g., 9-12: student can convince parents who want the car the same evening to split the time with him.)

B. Sharing Feelings

The student is able to:

x	x	x	x

1. Express feelings of anger, joy, regret, approval-disapproval, satisfaction, and other personal reactions in a manner appropriate to the persons and the situation (e.g., K-3: "I don't like it when you tease me;" 4-6: "I'm so sorry your bike got stolen;" 7-8: "What a great job you did on _____;" 9-12: "I feel badly when you are not telling me . . .")

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
x	x	x	x

2. Express affection to others (e.g., K-3: "I love you, Daddy . . ." "You're a great teacher, Mrs. _____;" 4-6: "I love you, Mom and Dad . . ." "You're a really special friend, _____;" 7-12: "I care about you, Mom and Dad . . ." "You're a terrific friend, _____.")

x	x	x	x

3. Express hostility to others (e.g., K-3: "Go away. I don't want to play with you;" 4-6: "Stop that. I don't like it;" 7-8: "I feel angry when you . . .;" 9-12: "I don't want to go along with your ideas because . . .")

x	x	x	x

4. L Describe another's feelings (e.g., K-3: "I know you feel sad that your pet died;" 4-6: "I can tell just by looking at you that you've had a bad day, Mom;" 7-8: "It's tough when the kids make you into a joke, I know;" 9-12: "I know you feel all your hard work was in vain, since you didn't get admitted to Stanford.")

x	x	x	x

5. Show pride in his or accomplishments (e.g., K-3: "Want to hear a great joke?" 4-6: "Guess who won the spelling bee -- I did!" 7-8: "I worked really hard on my science project. I learned a lot. I think I did a really good job." 9-12: "I've won athletic awards but winning this (academic honor) is my greatest accomplishment.")

	x	x	x

6. Explain what he or she feels about an idea, a person, or an event (e.g., 4-6: "The teacher I've been most willing to work for is Mr. _____ because . . ." 7-8: "I really like the music of (rock group) because . . ." 9-12: "When I think of the possibility of nuclear war I feel . . .")

	x	x	x

7. L Understand and respond to complaints (e.g., 4-6: the student listens to and understands complaints in regard to her manners or public behavior and demonstrates this understanding through changes in subsequent behavior; 7-8: The student listens to and understands a teacher's verbal critique of classroom work and demonstrates this understanding in subsequent actions; 9-12: the student listens to and understands complaints of parents, and demonstrates this understanding through adjustments in subsequent behavior.)

C. Informing

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12

The student is able to:

x	x	x	x	1. Use others as a resource when a task is too difficult (e.g., K-3: if the child doesn't understand a teacher's directions, she asks for clarification; 4-6: if the student doesn't understand the rules of a playground game, he asks a peer for further explanation; 7-8: if the student is having trouble locating research materials in the school library, she asks for help from the librarian or the teacher; 9-12: the student asks a stranger for clarification on the qualifications for a particular summer job.)
x	x	x	x	2. Explain a task to a peer or family member (e.g., K-3: the child explains the basic rules of a simple game so that a peer can play that game; 4-6: the student tells others what must occur for a particular job to be done well, such as, what one must do to qualify for a prize in a collection drive for used newspapers; 7-8: the student explains a "process" he has learned in math, science, PE, etc., to a peer who has been absent for the classroom explanation; 9-12: the student explains the concept of "offsides" to a peer who has never played soccer.)
x	x	x	x	3. Explain values to a peer or a problem to an adult (e.g., K-3: the child tells a doctor "where it hurts" or explains why a toy is not working properly by pointing out the source of the problem; 4-6: the student explains to a peer the ground rules or values important in his family: telling the truth, trying hard, curfew, etc.; 7-8: the student accurately reports a problem situation to school officials; 9-12: the student adequately explains the reasons for his own questionable behavior when queried by parents.)
x	x	x	x	4. Recognize when a peer or family member does not understand a message (e.g., K-3: the child realizes when her friend does not understand the rules of the game she is explaining; 4-6: if a student needs to bring something special to school, like old newspapers and asks help from a parent, he sees when his parent doesn't understand what he is asking for; 7-8: if a student is explaining an art project to a peer, she senses when that friend is "not getting it;" 9-12: if a student is explaining a "process" in math or science to his class, he sees when most of the class is missing his point.)

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
	x	x	x

5. Collect information, organize it sequentially, and present it to demonstrate a task or idea (e.g., 4-6: the student presents a short oral report to the class on any topic of general interest; 7-8: the student researches, reorganizes, and presents an oral report to the class enriching some topic from classroom study; 9-12: the student orally presents a research project.)

x	x	x	x

6. L Follow directions accurately (e.g., K-3: the child follows instructions in constructing a very simple art project; 4-6: the student listens to directions for a multi-part assignment and includes all the parts in the final product 7-8: the student listens to directions for a complicated game like chess, cribbage, or Dungeons and Dragons, and then follows the directions to play the chosen game; 9-12: the student listens to and accurately follows directions for repairing a simple appliance or auto part.)

	x	x	x

7. L Identify the main ideas in an oral message and summarize them (e.g., 4-6: the student tells what weather conditions might occur after listening to a TV broadcast; 7-8: the student summarizes for a parent the main topics covered in a lengthy phone conversation with a peer; 9-12: the student summarizes the main points of a particular world news situation after listening to a TV newscast.)

D. Ritualizing

The student is able to:

x	x	x	

1. Gain and maintain the attention of adults in a socially acceptable manner (e.g., K-3: the child can directly get the attention of an adult by using the appropriate "excuse me," "pardon me," "hello," etc., without interrupting; 4-6: in addition to gaining adult attention directly, the student can get attention indirectly through nonverbal communication, without resorting to misbehavior; 7-9: the student waits for best appropriate time to interject a comment before raising his hand.)

x	x	x	

2. Greet and take leave of others in an appropriate and effective manner (e.g., K-3: the child understands and implements the different ways of saying "hello" and "goodbye" to different people; 4-8: the student continues to implement appropriate greetings and goodbyes to a variety of people in a variety of settings.)

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
x	x	x	x

3. Introduce himself to others and strangers to each other (e.g., K-3: the child introduces himself to the new members of his class in the fall; 4-6: the student introduces a new class member to other members of the class or introduces a new friend to her parents; 7-12: the student introduces himself or another in a school assembly.)

x	x	x	x

4. Make small talk in conversations (e.g., K-3: the child learns to talk about school or a game to keep conversation going with a peer; 4-6: the student learns to talk about "the weather" to keep a conversation going with an adult; 7-8: the student broadens his repertoire of "small talk" to be able to keep conversations going with a wide variety of people in a wide variety of settings; 9-12: the student talks to the principal at the Honor Society Tea.)

x	x	x	x

5. Speak with appropriate rate, volume, and clarity in a variety of settings and for a variety of purposes (e.g., K-3: the child talks to the teacher so that the teacher can keep with her, hear her well, and understand what she is saying; 4-6: the student talks to his class so they can keep up with him, hear him well, and understand what he is saying; 7-8: the student talks to a large group, such as a school assembly, so that they can keep up with her, hear her well, and understand what she is saying; 9-12: the student can speak to a group of strangers (e.g, Rotary Club) so they can keep up with him, hear him well, and understand what he is saying.)

x	x	x	x

6. Participate in conversations as an active listener (e.g., K-3: in lunchtime conversations the child's comments to his friend reflect the fact that he is listening to what the friend says; 4-6: when a teacher discusses a problem with a student, the student's comments reflect the fact that she has listened to the teacher; 7-8: the student listens to others during a class discussion, and assimilates their comments before making his own; 9-12: the student's conversations with adults reflect the fact that he "listens" to their content and viewpoint.)

E. Imagining

Grade Levels			
K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
x	x	x	x

The student is able to:

1. Role play a peer, a teacher, a parent (e.g., K-3: the child role plays the part of a teacher telling the class to be quiet; 4-6: the student role plays the part of a parent scolding a child for bad manners; 7-8: the student role plays a peer criticizing school rules;

x	x	x	x

9-12: the student role plays a parent, a peer, or a teacher as each communicates ritualizing, controlling, or informing.)

x	x	x	x

2. Create a character that uses speech appropriate to its depiction (e.g., K-3: the child creates a "monster" puppet and has it "talk" to the class; 4-6: the student draws a "character" which tells the class its own brief life story; 7-8: the student creates an imaginary character and a short monologue for his creation; 9-12: the student "becomes" a character from history, and tells an important event from his life.)

x	x	x	x

3. Empathize with the feelings of a character in a story and act that part (e.g., K-3: the child talks about a simple children's story, such as Terrible, Horrible, No-Good, Very Bad Day, talks about how all the characters in the story feel and why they act the way they do, and then acts out the story; 4-8: the students act out plays, demonstrating an ability to empathize with and relate to a character; 9-12: the students improvise acting out a scene from a favorite novel.)

	x	x	x

4. Tell an original story in a small-group setting (e.g., 4-8: after study and discussion of the "tall tale," students divide into groups of 3-5 to do their own tale telling; 9-12: the student creates a story appropriate for a particular occasion (babysitting, a Halloween sleep-over, camp, etc.,) and tells it to the class.)

	x	x	x

5. Read a story in a public setting (e.g., 4-6: the student reads a short story or poem in an entertaining manner to her own class; 7-8: the student reads a short story or poem to class other than his own, or in a school group situation, such as an assembly; 9-12: the student prepares a "Readers Theatre" type presentation of a story for a school or community group.)

		x	x

6. Invent a humorous situation and communicate the humor of it to another (e.g., 7-8: the student tells the class a funny story, 9-12: the student creates an original joke or humorous anecdote which she shares with the class.)

Grade Levels

K-3	4-6	7-8	9-12
	x	x	x

7. L Create a part of a story or a single character that fits into the plot and mood of a story created by peers (e.g., 4-6: the students practice "multiple author story telling" where one student creates the opening action of a story, the next continues on that base adding the conflict, the next the crisis, the next the climax, and the last the resolution; 7-8: the students break into groups of 3-5, with each student portraying a different imaginary character and each group improvising a story where the characters relate to each other; 9-12: the class as a whole or in groups create a story, then each student creates an imaginary character that he thinks will best portray the story line.)

RESOURCES FOR TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Opportunities for teaching oral communication skills (K-12 abound in every classroom and school. The daily interchanges between students and teachers, students and students, classroom discussion groups and oral reports, assemblies and programs, all provide unlimited opportunities for practicing oral communication skills. The task of the classroom teacher is to provide direct instruction for these opportunities so that all students will experience growth in their oral communication competence.

Since seeing what others do often "triggers" ideas which later develop into innovative and individualized curricula, we are including a brief list of activities and projects that K-12 teachers throughout the country are using to teach oral communication skills. Some of the activities can be taught exactly from the source listed; others should be modified to reflect the particular school population and examples. All have been selected for immediate application by the classroom teacher.

Our perspective continues to be that oral communication competence is a basic lifelong necessity. We believe also that teachers often are unaware of the amount of time they are already investing in oral communication activities. We are hopeful that this framework and these suggested activities will result in a renewed effort by K-12 teachers to improve the oral communication skills of the students of the state of Washington.

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ORAL COMMUNICATION
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Approaches to the Teaching of Oral Communication, by W. J. Crocker. Jul 1979 12p. (ED 181495)

Serving as an introduction to a conference for Australian educators on developing oral communication skills, this paper reviews current methods of teaching speech skills. The paper describes a basic approach that holds that a learner's improved use of a skill is related to the number of satisfying experiences the learner has using the skill. It also summarizes a teaching method based on the work of James Moffett that was recommended by the participants in a curriculum workshop in Canberra in 1974. In addition, three theories of teaching communication are described: teaching of techniques or discrete communication skills, teaching of rhetorical principles (the classic divisions of invention, disposition, style, memory, and delivery) and teaching of interaction skills (understanding one's own needs and responding sensitively and emphatically to other's needs).

"Basing Language Arts Instruction on What Children Know about Words," by David Hayes and Stephen P. Plaskon. Educational Horizons. v60 n2 p27-78 Win 1982.

Describing what children at the preoperational stage know about writing, spelling, and words, the authors make specific recommendations for ways language arts teachers can build instruction that is based on this knowledge.

The Classroom Environment and the Development of Oral Expression. A Pilot Study Report, by Cecilio Orozco. 1980 13p. (ED 189603)

Based on the contention that knowledge of how and where children learn to speak is essential to the development of sound bilingual educational programs, a research project was undertaken to gain insights into how children learn oral language at school. Three bilingual and 39 nonbilingual classrooms at the preschool through the sixth grade level were observed for one complete school day, with observers concentrating on one child selected at random from the total class. Observers recorded the length of time the child was directed or induced to speak by the teacher and noted the total amount of time the child was under direct adult supervision during the day. The findings suggested the following: (1) children speak but are not required to do so by the teacher; (2) children are learning to speak outside the control of teachers; and (3) teachers do not control the oral language development of children.

Critical Listening Activities: A First Step in Language Arts, by Thomas P. Fitzerald. 1979. 9p. (ED 185587)

Four activities are suggested to develop student appreciation for the relationships between listening and the other language arts. The activities are designed to improve on present classroom instruction, which usually provides little time for formal oral language instruction. Each activity begins with some aspect of oral language training and proceeds to reading and writing instruction. The titles of the activities reflect their specific emphasis within oral language development: "Describe Me Well" (giving oral directions), "What Did Ya Hear?" (developing critical listening skills), "Sum of This and Sum of That" (summarization), and "Imagine Me Today" (expressive language in creative dramatics and the development of images). What should be evident in using these activities is the need for more direct instruction in oral language skills and the importance of these skills within the scope of language arts instruction. Hearing without listening must be replaced by listening which is active, questioning, critical, and evaluative.

Developing a Research-Based Language/Reading Program, by Richard F. Walker. May 1978. 64p. (ED160974)

The Mount Gravatt Language Development and Reading Program described in this paper is the result of a conviction that teachers of reading and writing should build on the impressive and highly functional oral language system which children bring to their formal education for literacy. The paper first presents the language research on which the program is based, and then offers an account of the teaching materials and strategies into which the research outcomes were translated in classroom trials. The paper also contains a report on piloting the program.

Developing Oral Communication Skills: Implications of Theory and Research for Instruction and Training, by Nancy A. Mead. Sep 1980 12p. (ED 193677)

This paper provides an overview of relevant oral communication theory, research, and practice from a variety of sources, such as the fields of linguistics, psychology, speech communication, and education. It describes the nature of oral communication skills, including the similarities and differences between oral and written communication. It summarizes some of the research on the development of oral communication skills and the effectiveness of instruction and training on development. Finally, it examines current educational practices and training in oral communication skills, indicates profitable directions for programs, and discusses available resources for developing oral communication programs.

Education in the 80's: English, ed. by Baird R. Shuman. 1981. 167p. (ED199762)

The essays in this collection are designed to provide an overview of the most pressing issues and ideas with which English teachers contend today and will contend in the near future. The contributors, 22 English teachers and educators, have attempted to view change in a sufficiently broad perspective to enable them to make responsible predictions about the 1980s, taking into account the social and economic variables that will necessarily affect the United States during this time. Titles of the essays reflect concerns for the following topics: (1) writing and the English curriculum; (2) literature study in the 1980s; (3) language and the English curriculum; (4) holonomic knowing (a very generalized model of holistic learning); (5) oral English and the literacy imperative; (6) reading and the teaching of English; (7) the basics in the 1980s; (8) English in the elementary and middle schools; (9) the training of English teachers in the 1980s; (10) the media, media literacy, and the English curriculum; (11) computer-assisted English instruction; (12) English as a second language in the 1980s; (13) English and vocational education; (14) dealing with sexual stereotypes; (15) English for minority groups, for the gifted and talented, and for the handicapped; and (16) needed research in the teaching of English.

"Encouraging Communication in English: A Paradox," by Gerry Abbott. English Language Teaching Journal. v35 n3 p228-30 Apr 1981.

Suggests that the new communicative techniques for teaching English for special purposes to school children is mistaking ends for means. Both old manipulative methods and new communicative methods are needed.

English Language Arts Skills and Instruction: Abstracts of Doctoral Dissertations Published in "Dissertation Abstracts International," July through December 1980 (Vol. 41 Nos. 1 through 6). 1980 13p. (ED 197367)

This collection of abstracts is part of a continuing series providing information on recent doctoral dissertations. The 18 titles deal with a variety of topics, including the following: (1) an alternative high school English curriculum and its relationship to student alienation and pupil control ideology; (2) an oral language program for fifth grade students and its effect on varied aspects of reading achievement; (3) a secondary magnet school; (4) the interrelationships of writing ability, writing interest, reading readiness, and reading performance of kindergarten students; (5) effects of dictionary skills lessons and written composition on spelling achievement in middle grade students; (6) oral-aural communication skills in English among adult immigrants and exiles; (7) spelling achievement and teachers' attitudes toward staff development; (8) elective and traditional

English program structures and English achievement; (9) a comparison of a word utility spelling program with a sound structured program; and (10) an analysis of nonconserving and conserving first grade children's dictated language experience stories according to five characteristics of plot structures and J. Piaget's decreasingly egocentric speech features.

"ERIC/RCS Report: Oral Language and the Language Arts Teacher," by David B. Fletcher. Language Arts. v58 n2 p219-24 Feb 1981.

The development of children's oral language ability, speaking, and listening, is examined in light of recent research and its implications for language arts teachers.

Exercises for Beginning and Group Interpretation courses, by Janice Jones Meyer. Apr 1980 13p. (ED 186975)

Composing oral poems and storytelling are two exercises that speech teachers can use in oral interpretation courses. Conducting the oral poetry exercise early in an introductory interpretation course allows students to become acquainted with each other and to encourage each other while sharing something of themselves with the entire class. This exercise begins with an introduction to the oral tradition and examples of the oral tradition in popular culture. After the teacher composes an oral poem for the class while some of the students record the poem as it is composed, the class discusses aspects of the oral tradition further. Then the teacher's poem is recomposed, comparing the similarities and differences of the two versions. Subsequently, all the students get opportunities to compose and record oral poems. A second exercise, one that can be used in the classes on chamber theatre, is storytelling--performing as a narrator while other class members act out the parts of the story's characters. This exercise promotes a discussion of the differences in narrative control, narrative attitudes, and the relationships between the narrator, the audience, and the scene.

Experiences, Conversation Games, Volume II. 1978 161p. (ED 203308)

This is one of three volumes of instructional games devised to further the development of children's listening, logical thinking, problem solving, and oral communication skills. The games are designed to create a relaxed, informal setting in which teachers can encourage and support children's natural speech and provide language activities that have relevance to children's own experiences and other real life situations. The games in this volume are intended to stimulate the conceptual skills of associating, improvising, role playing, and elaborating and the social skills of sharing imagination with others and collaborating on improvisations, stories, and dialogues. In addition to descriptions of ten games, the volume contains suggestions for content area applications of the games, a conversation games checklist for evaluation, and suggestions for correcting practices shown by the checklist to need improvement.

Exploring Speaking-Writing Relationships: Connections and Contrasts, ed by Barry M. Kroll and Roberta J. Vann. 1981 247p. (ED 204794)

The 13 chapters in this volume explore what is known and what still needs to be learned about the complex relationships between speaking and writing. The first chapter in the book provides a detailed overview of linguistic studies of oral and written language relationships. The next three chapters focus on the relationships between children's oral and written language skills and what these relationships imply about the teaching of writing and reading. Chapters five and six consider oral and written language in a societal context, while chapters seven, eight, and nine are concerned with methodological issues in the study of speaking-writing relationships, each suggesting a way to broaden the understanding of these relationships. The next two chapters broaden the understanding of oral-written relationships by considering two special groups of individuals who often struggle to learn English--speakers of other languages and the profoundly deaf. The final two chapters focus on pedagogy, such as integrating speaking and writing in a business communications course.

Help for the Reading Teacher: Dealing with Limited English Proficient (LEP) Children in Classroom and Reading Center, by Joan T. Feeley. Apr 1982. 15p. (ED 214158)

When working with limited English proficient (LEP) children who have been mainstreamed into regular elementary school classrooms, teachers must keep in mind that the first order of business is to help the students build a store of knowledge about English--how it sounds, what it looks like in print, and what it means. Teachers will discover that it is not necessary to wait until students can understand and speak English before introducing them to reading and writing in that language. All of the language processes support and clarify each other, but they must be developed in meaningful, full-context situations. The first reading materials should be oral dialogues learned and language experience stories developed through real classroom experiences. Next, the teacher should add repetitive stories and chants, songs, and poems to the repertoire. Listening to tapes while following along with a text and having many opportunities to write and compose will help LEP children to develop an understanding of the language for themselves. Classroom teachers and reading teachers who know language, know children, and know how to bring the two together in meaningful situations can go a long way in helping the LEP child move into the American mainstream.

"Help Them to Speak, Write, and Listen--They'll Be Better Readers," by Linda Jean Lehnert. Reading Horizons v21 n3 p174-78 Spr 1981.

Considers the role of oral language in reading and its implications for the primary grades teacher. Provides a number of activities that integrate reading, speaking, listening, and writing.

Ideas for Teaching English in the Junior and Middle Schooo, ed. by Candy Carter and Zora Rashkis. National Council of Teachers of English, 1980. 309pp.

Nearly two hundred activities for teaching English in five sections: Studying Language, Communicating Orally, Reading, and Reading Literature, Writing, and Listening and Viewing.

Increasing Instructional Effectiveness: Reducing Classroom Apprehension, by Satoshi Ishii and Donald Klopf. Nov 1980. 14p. (ED 194942)

Research shows that a very large percentage of Japanese university students are apprehensive about communicating orally, to the degree that their fear may be debilitating, weakening their effectiveness as oral interactants in social and classroom situations. This uneasiness with speech has been culturally ingrained for centuries. Children are trained to be silent, and much of Japanese society reinforces that training. Although speaking is the primary means of communication, many students' apprehension overrides their desire to learn to speak well in a second language, and they tend to avoid classroom speaking situations. The emphasis on reading and writing drills in second language instruction and the instructor's own apprehension only add to the students' poor language acquisition. Second language instruction should place greater emphasis on oral communication by arranging, in the classroom, social situations where students can practice spontaneous and effective speaking. These situations may progress from simple dyadic encounters to more complex group and public speaking encounters. Simple muscle relaxation exercises at the beginning of the class period may also help to put the apprehensive student more at ease with speaking.

Informal and Formal Means of Assessing Kindergarten Children's Communicative Competence, by Janet K. Black. (ED 169562)

Methods of assessing children's oral language ability are explored in this paper. Following a discussion of problems involved in the formal assessment of oral language ability, a study is described that revealed that the evaluation of the oral language of 12 kindergarten children in the social context of the natural classroom environment, specifically the sociodramtic area, provided more comprehensive information than did two standardized language tests. Descriptions of children's interactions are provided to show how their interactional competency was categorized according to a new instrument, the "Interactional Competency Checklist." The four main categories examined are the ability to adapt to changes in the setting, nonverbal appropriateness, familiarity with normal constraints and conditions, and sequencing. The paper concludes by suggesting implications pertaining to language evaluation, teacher roles in language assessment, and programming for language instruction and by noting that the assessment of communicative competence must deal with interactional as well as grammatical competence. Illustrative tables and a copy of the "Interactional Competency Checklist" are included.

"Literacy and Orality in Our Times," by Walter J. Ong. ADE Bulletin. 58 1-7 Sep 1978.

Points out the importance of orality in past centuries and in some contemporary cultures (including that of the black urban ghetto); discusses the problems in moving from oral expression to writing; and notes contrasts between primary orality, writing and printing, and secondary orality--the orality induced by radio and television.

A Multi-Skill Approach to ESL in Bilingual Education, by Susan Grohs Iwamura. 22p Mar 1981. (ED206172)

Different views of the purposes of literacy are among the factors that influence success rates of students from different backgrounds. Research involving non-mainstream English proficient children is useful in understanding the adjustment of students with limited or no English proficiency. Although previous experience with literacy is an important variable in teaching literacy in English, literacy teaching does not necessarily depend on mastery of the spoken language in which the student is becoming literate. Because of the mismatch between teacher expectations and child behavior that may occur both when the teacher and child share a native language or when their native languages differ, educational programs must accommodate to the cultural influences children bring to the classroom. Writing needs to be approached as both a vehicle of personal expression and as a way for students to develop editing skills, thereby promoting a more general awareness of language and helping to lessen some of the discrepancies between teacher and student expectations. Both spoken and written language skills may be advanced by dividing students into small groups in which peer-tutoring is a continuous practice. Culturally appropriate small group activities and teaching techniques are presented in the appendix.

Oral Communication K-9, ed, by June Cottrell. 1979 87p. (ED 178983)

This speech communication curriculum guide is designed to provide a comprehensive oral language curriculum, to suggest ways for integrating oral activities into other curriculum areas, and to stimulate ideas for using oral language in a holistic rather than a fragmentary learning environment. Following an introductory chapter on "creating the climate," eight units provide information on building a view of self, building relationships, group communication, communicating through talks and speeches, storytelling, reading aloud, creative drama, and communicating through the media. Each unit contains lists of objectives, suggested learning experiences, evaluation tools, and available audiovisual materials, as well as a bibliography.

Oral Composing. Communication Skills. PCRP Assessment Survey III, by Stephen M. Koziol, Jr. 34p. 1982. (ED213031)

This packet is the third of five developed as a set of self-appraisal instruments with which teachers (and others) can systematically examine their instruction methods in communication skills. The packet contains forms for teachers, students, administrators, and parents addressing two levels of specificity: responses to the overall comunication skills program and responses to a teacher's practices and policies within a single kind of class situation. This packet on oral composing is divided into ten sections as follows: (1) reaching for school improvement, (2) administering the teacher survey, (3) teacher response form, (4) the tabulation guide outline for the teacher response form, (5) tabulating responses from the teacher survey, (6) administering the student survey, (7) student response form, (8) administering the parent and administrator survey, (9) administration response form, and (10) parent response form.

Oral Language: Expression of Thought. Updated Edition, by Nicholas Anastasiow. 1979 40p. (ED 168025)

The purpose of this publication is to explain how a child learns and how language development is related to motor, emotional, and cognitive development. Following a brief introductory chapter, it presents a chapter on how a child learns, divided into the following categories: motor development; emotional development; language development; the rhythmic and motoric basis of learning; and oral language development, reading readiness, and black or poverty English. The third chapter, which outlines teaching techniques designed to develop oral language in preparation for reading, is divided into sections on specific assessment techniques and suggestions for developmental instruction.

Oral Language Instruction in the United States: The State of the Arts, by Rosemary Winkeljohann. 13p. Aug 1978. (ED165127)

To ascertain what type of environment exists in elementary classrooms in the United States to stimulate oral language, questionnaires were mailed to 500 classroom teachers. Data from the 412 respondents indicated that 83% believed their college courses in language arts had not prepared them to encourage the development of children's language, and 25% believed that reading to children was good because it increased vocabulary. In addition, the results showed that teachers were not clear on the purpose of oral language, that they did not understand the relationship between oral and written language, that 75% of the schools surveyed did not have an oral language curriculum, and that generally little attention was paid to the oral language of children as long as they could answer the teacher's questions. Teachers could improve instruction in oral language by creating an environment in which children are encouraged to develop oral language, combining Michael Halliday's theory that language use and purpose are

the heart of language learning with Walter Loban's concept of growth stages in syntactic compexity, and by teaching children to use the oral language process of talking to others or to themselves as one step in the reading process.

"Oral Language Management: Some Initial Considerations for Teaching Reading," by Frank T. Koe. Reading World. 17, 4, 329-32 May 1978.

Presents a rationale for oral language management and suggests possible classroom practices for enhancing its use. Language management is defined as an attempt to guide the linguistic oscillations from learner to learner, thus encouraging content-centered talk by the teacher or learner, or both.

"Oral Language: The Rooting System for Learning to Write," by Anne Haas Dyson. Language Arts v58 n7 p776-84 Oct 1981.

Explores the transition of several children from spoken language to beginning writing.

People Times. Conversation Games,Volume I. 1978 162p. (ED 203307)

This is one of three volumes of instructional games devised to further the development of childrens' listening, logical thinking, problem solving, and effective oral communication skills. The games are designed to create a relaxed, informal setting in which teachers can encourage and support children's natural speech and provide language activities that have relevance to children's own experiences and other real life situations. The games in this volume are intended to stimulate the conceptual skills of question asking, remembering, verifying, and inferring and the social skills of listening to and exchanging information with other players. In addition to descriptions of 13 games, the manual contains suggestions for content area applications of the games, a conversation games checklist for evaluation, and suggestions for correcting practices shown by the checklist to a need improvement.

Practicality and Literacy, by Marcia Baghban. 18p May 1981. (ED206411)

Children can acquire written language skills and abilities through the natural process by which they acquire oral language. If as infants, toddlers, and preschoolers, children are exposed to rich print environments, they transfer assumptions from experiences with oral dialogue to the more focused situations of print. Discrepancies in the ease with which children learn to speak and learn to read largely result from the disruption of natural process by educational programs, as indicated by the fact that as many as 25% of entering first graders in the United States have learned to read without formal instruction. The emerging discipline of psycholinguistics emphasizes that language and reading are constructive processes. Children need to be told that

they already know a great deal about how these processes work. Miscue analysis, schema theory, and the language experience approach involves procedures that build on the child's experiences and are based on developmental language learning processes. The axioms these approaches provide teachers are "Begin where the student is" and "Teach to the child's strengths." With a process orientation to writing, teachers can affect the ways children think and can maintain the meaningfulness and joy which motivated children's oral language development.

Present and Future Directions in English Education Research, ed. by National Council of Teachers of English. 85p Nov. 1981. (ED208423)

The 12 papers in this collection deal with trends in English education research. The papers discuss the following topics: (1) language awareness and schooling, (2) the language processes underlying literacy, (3) the role of oral language in early writing processes, (4) writing to learn in the humanities, (5) instructional effect on reading development, (6) the development of metaphor comprehension, (7) the relationship between reading and writing, (8) evaluating the writing course, (9) student characteristics and writing performance, (10) interrupting visual feedback in writing, (11) the development of preschoolers' discourse skills in a dyadic context, and (12) teachers' use of language as a way of learning.

Principles for Teaching Non-English Speaking Students in the Regular Classroom, by Raymond J. Rodrigues. 13p. Nov 1981. (ED209668)

Regular classroom teachers who, in addition to teaching their regular students, have to deal with students who do not speak English should follow certain principles in planning curricula and lessons for their non-English speaking students. These teachers should (1) distinguish formal classroom talk from informal talk; (2) allow opportunities for language learners to communicate with nativespeakers; (3) look for language patterns, words, and phrases that recur; (4) maintain a positive and encouraging attitude; (5) concentrate on the most important aspects of language first, rather than correcting every error that language learners make; (6) establish student-to-student relationships for the non-English speaking student; (7) provide oral tasks for the language learner first, then reading and writing tasks; and (8) prepare exercises based on the essential cultural elements the non-English speaking student must learn. These principles suggest an approach that makes as much use of peer tutors as possible so that the teacher is free to deal with the rest of the class. Also, working with peers involves the English language learner as much as possible in real communication situations.

"A Program for Developing children's Language," by Elva Verrall. Australian Journal of Reading. v4 n3 p131-36 Aug 1981.

Describes a program of activities for increasing children's skill with oral language, including creative story telling, questioning, and role exchange.

A Programme in Oracy, by Astrid Wootton. Jul 1979 9p. (ED 180028)

The oral English program of a parochial girls' school in Australia is described in this paper. Included in the description are the schedule of classes; the qualifications of the teaching staff; and the teaching philosophy, which is based on the concepts that students absorb more during classes than the manifest lesson content and that the greater the variety of linguistic demand, the greater the control of language usage build by students. Emphasized in the report is the rapport and mutual support among the instructional staff and the importance of building interpersonal relations in the classroom between teacher and students. Problems of assessment in such a program are also discussed.

Solutions, Conversation Games, Volume III. 1981 257p. (ED 203382)

This is one of three volumes of instructional games devised to further the development of children's listening, logical thinking, problem solving, and oral communication skills. The games are designed to create a relaxed, informal setting in which teachers can encourage and support children's natural speech and provide language activities that have relevance to children's own experiences and other real life situations. The games in this volume are intended to stimulate cooperative and creative problem solving. In addition to descriptions of 13 games, the volume contains suggestions for using the games successfully in the classroom and for content area applications of the games, a conversation games checklist for evaluation, and suggestions for correcting practices shown by the checklist for need improvement.

Speaking and Writing: The Semantic Connection, by James L. Collins. Mar 1980 13p. (ED 185561)

Because inexperienced or basic writers depend on the semantics of everyday spoken dialogue when writing, research on written composition and the developmental links between spoken and written language should be more accessible to the practitioners who teach writing to those students. A review of the literature supports the theory of a semantic connection between speaking and writing, and a tenth-grade writing sample demonstrates a dependence on the reader's familiarity with a particular sociocultural context for the writing's full semantic value. Teachers who work with unskilled writers should avoid correcting only surface forms and should give students the opportunity to talk through the context-bound aspects of their writing with concerned readers. The interaction of talk and writing is essential to achieving competence for student writers who depend on the semantics of spoken language.

"Structure and Spontaneity: Group Dynamics in the College-Level French Class," by Gail G. Wade. French Review. v54 n3 p401-4 Feb 1981.

Suggests small group techiques that maximize classroom opportunities for student activity, and describes some oral and written tasks that have proved highly effective. Explains how group dynamics can offer support to students and help them break down some of their inhibitions about speaking a foreign language.

Survival through Language: The Basics and Beyond; Proceedings of the Language Communications Conference (29th, University of Pittsburgh, 1976), ed. by Rita Bean. 54p. 1977. (ED145437)

This publication includes five papers that were presented at a language communications conference that emphasized integrating the language arts at elementary and secondary school levels. Walter Loban stresses the importance of classroom language activities that involve children in genuine purposes and that link language to thinking. Charles R. Cooper argues that, when teachers teach writing, they should spend most of their time conferring with individual students about their writing and that they should train students to talk to each other in helpful ways about their writing. Dorothy S. Strickland discusses the importance of oral language in children's schooling and stresses the need for a well-planned oral language curriculum. Alan C. Purves examines skills needed for producing and receiving language and proposes a set of goals for teaching students to achieve language mastery. Delores Minor points out the need for teachers to go beyond teaching the basics to include humanism in education.

Teaching Language Arts in Early Childhood, by John Warren Stewig. 1982. 210p. (ED210691)

Intended for the language arts teacher, this book focuses on how to develop children's language skills. The opening chapter of the book presents a brief overview of child language acquisition, children's language abilities at a particular age, and how these abilities develop. The second chapter, on the importance of children's literature, is based on the premise that children's own language should be influenced by well-written adult language. Uses of literature are described and the functions of a planned program of literature experiences are enumerated. The sequence of activities presented in the third chapter makes it possible for the teacher to ensure that the students will be better listeners when they leave the classroom than when they arrived. Chapter four, on oral language, suggests ways teachers can organize the environment and plan lessons to develop oral fluency. The fifth chapter, on reading readiness, suggests that in every classroom children are preparing to read, and focuses on ways a teacher develops interest in coping with print. The language experience approach to reading, seen as fitting most

naturally into this total program, is described at some length. The last chapter, focusing on writing, includes activities suitable through third grade and samples showing children's range of abilities when writing. The book concludes with suggestions for further study and reading.

" 'Teaching' Oral Language," by Carole Edelsky. Language Arts. 55, 3, 291-6 Mar 1978.

Defines oral language development, discusses findings from adult-child interaction studies, and presents classroom implications.

"That's Not a Book," by Barrie Wade. Children's Literature in Education. v13 n1 p32-37 Spr 1982.

Provides examples of children's use of oral games and suggests that they are excellent material to establish the needed links between experience, speech, and the written word.

Toward a Meaningful Model of Written Language Development, by Sandra Stotsky. Mar 1982. 19p. (ED214174)

There appear to be two basic theories about the relationship of written language to oral language and the relationship of writing to reading. The first theory views written language as a derivative of oral language and as an alternate but parallel form of oral language. The pedagogical implications of this model suggest that the problems of comprehension and composition are essentially the same for the reader and writer as for the listener and speaker. The second theory views written language as qualitatively different from oral language, differing both in its origins and in its purposes. According to this theory, writing, while initially dependent upon oral language while children learn to decode and encode written language, becomes increasingly less dependent on oral language and more influenced by written language itself. The theory seems to suggest that students' writing may gradually become more like the language they read, with continuous experience and instruction in reading and writing this language. The fact that poor writing is often poor precisely because it reflects the patterns, structures, and lexicon of poor oral language would suggest that composition instruction based on the first theory that views academic writing as a derivative of oral language is ill-advised.

Transition into Literacy: An Analysis of Language Behavior during Reading and Writing Instruction in a First Grade Classroom, by Johanna S. DeStefano, and others. May 1980 23 p. (ED186865)

Language development, including literacy learning (reading and writing) was studied in a first grade classroom in a culture-in-contact situation. The language behavior of three boys--one mainstream culture member, another from black inner-city culture, and a third from Appalachian culture--and the language of a teacher from

mainstream culture were analyzed according to qualitative methods including discourse analysis and analyses of responses in reading groups, responses to procedures such as M. Clay's "Concepts About Print Survey," and the students' talk about reading and writing in interviews. Preliminary findings indicated that the children had learned many of the rules of classroom discourse, including those used in litercy teaching and learning, and were becoming literate. However, some cultural differences in language interaction and literacy learning were found. The findings suggest that educators need to develop an understanding of language interaction and learning patterns of oral cultures in the United States and that a variety of assessment techniques in reading are needed to measure learning in that area.

"Turn on to Reading through the Effective Use of the Other Communication Skills," by Rose Marie Brew. English Quarterly. 10, 3, 43-50. F 1977.

Lists objectives, activities, methods, and materials that use listening and speaking skills to develop reading/writing abilities.

The Use of the Black Folk Oral Tradition and Other Black Rhetorical and Verbal Strategies in the Teaching of Composition, by Edward Anderson. Mar 1977 22p. (ED 145425)

This paper presents background information on the development of the folk oral tradition of black American literaure. It then examines seven types of black literature that are basically oral; black folk tales, black folk sermons, black ballads, black American spirituals, black nonreligious or secular songs, black American blues, and Afro-American jokes. Such verbal and rhetorical strategies of the black ghetto as rapping, running it down, jiving, shucking, copping a plea, sounding, and signifying are discussed, and it is noted that these verbal strategies are parts of the black oral tradition and serve definite needs and functions in the black American community. The final part of the paper indicates ways in which teachers of English composition may employ the folk oral types of black American literature and the black verbal and rhetorical strategies as motivational and instructional tools in the classroom.

Using Children's Folksongs to Transition Beginning Readers from the Familiar Structure of Oral Lanaguage to the Structure of Written Language, by Sandra A. Rietz. May 1976 12p. (ED 142983)

Children will meet one less obstacle to making the transition from spoken to written fluency in language if, during the transition period, they experience written language that corresponds structurally to their spoken language patterns. Familiar children's folksongs, because they contain some of the structure of children's oral language, provide structural redundancy, and allow simultaneous seeing

and reading, are a useful vehicle for aiding in this transition process. Several songs -- "Had a Little Rooster," "Go Tell Aunt Rhodie," "Buckeye Jim," and so on -- exhibit correspondences to the oral language patterns of children as defined by Ruth G. Strickland and can form the basis for an effective instructional program for beginning readers.

Utilizing the Monroe Scales to Evaluate Oral Language, by Sharon Lee Wooden. Oct 1978 8p. (ED 162286)

Four scales developed by Marion Monroe for recording, describing, analyzing, and rating children's oral language skills are described and presented in this paper. The skills assessed by the scales are first described as follows: (1) how a child thinks, as revealed by the quality of ideas; (2) how a child thinks, as revealed by definition of words; (3) how a child uses words, as revealed by ability to verbalize ideas; and (4) how a child uses words, as revealed by command of sentence structure. Eighteen activities are then described that will encourage children to expand their vocabularies and express themselves orally.

"The Videotape Recorder in Foreign Language Conversation and Composition Courses," by George Buehler. Foreign Language Annals. v15 n2 p103-07 Apr 1982.

Describes teaching methods using videotape recorder in which students are taped acting out dialogs. Then tapes are shown to, analyzed, and evaluated by the class. Finally, students write an essay on one aspect of the tape.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

These materials are available to assist school districts in oral and written communication programs. They may be obtained at your Educational Service District.

Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Pre-K - Grade 6, ed. by Barbara Sundene Wood. Speech Communication Association, 1977.
Development of Functional Communication Competencies: Grades 7-12, ed. by Barbara Sundene Wood. Speech Communication Association, 1977.

Provides teachers with the best educational theory and/or research and presents descriptions of classroom activities which assist the teacher in putting this theory into practice.

Handbook for Planning an Effective Writing Program: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve. California State Department of Education, 1982.

Provides school administrators and teachers with a standard for assessing their existing writing programs and a tool for helping them design new programs. Both the content and teaching strategies of a writing program K-12 are addressed.

How to Help Your Child Become a Better Writer. National Council of Teachers of English.

Suggestions for parents on becoming an active participant in their child's education as a writer. Divided into two sections: "Things to do at Home" and "Things to do for School Writing Programs."

National Standards for Oral and Written Communications. Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1982.

A reprint of the Standards for a Basic Skills Writing Program (NCTE) and Standards for an Effective Oral Communication Program (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association and Speech Communications Association). Helpful as a starting point in identifying strengths and weaknesses of existing programs and the environment of support throughout the school.

Developing Oral Communication Skills. Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1982.

Includes two papers and a bibliography on oral communication. "Developing Oral Communication Skills, K-12" by Jody Nyquist and Barbara Clinton, is supportive material to the Wood series (Development of Functional Communication Competencies) and assists the practitioner in implementing effective oral communications skills which can be expected of students. The introduction by Phil Backlund and John Johnson includes some thoughts on speech communication research.

Saying it with Sounds and Symbols: Oral and Written Communications Framework. Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1982.

Provides a starting point for program review. Includes State Board of Education Goals for Common Schools, Program Goals, Responsibilities for Learning, and a Preliminary Evaluation Procedure.

Studying: A Key To Success....Ways Parents Can Help, by Ann Erickson. International Reading Association.

Gives tips on ways parents can help their children in learning to study effectively.

Writing Programs in Washington State. Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1982.

Includes a research synthesis on effective writing programs, followed by abstracts of classroom writing programs, including mini-grant projects. Bibliography.

Writing in the Schools: Improvement Through Effective Leadership, by Allan A. Glatthorn. National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1981.

Written for the administrator, this book describes the writing process--how to improve writing, how to supervise its instruction and how to evaluate a writing program.

Your Home is Your Child's First School, by Norma Rogers. International Reading Association. (Adapted from How Can I Help My Child Get Ready to Read?)

Suggestions for parents in assisting their children in the development of reading skills.